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SLIS Student Research Journal

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May 2014

Then & Now: The Changing Face of the Library Professional

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Welcome to the first issue of Volume 4 of the *Student Research Journal* (*SRJ*). As we publish the fourth volume of this student-run, student-governed scholarly journal, we continue to provide researchers and authors with critically evaluated articles of concern to library and information science professionals and students. I'm proud to say that we are reaching the twenty-thousand download mark of our articles from readers around the world.

Our editorial team members continue to provide critical review of the submissions received by *SRJ* under guidance of the Managing Editor, Sara Kelso. Team members for this issue were Jason Baker, Tacoma Tomlinson, Brighid Mooney-Gonzales, Laura Stanger, Lawrence Mak, and Alex Post as content editors and Stephanie Routhier-Perry as copy editor. All of the team members agree that one of the most helpful aspects of working on the journal is that the training and experience in evaluating manuscripts helps sharpen their own writing skills. Editors learn that preparing a manuscript for publication in a scholarly journal requires a higher level of preparation and skill than that required to prepare a paper for a graduate level class.

Team members are encouraged to submit their own paper to be evaluated through the strict double-blind peer review, with the exception of the Managing Editor and Editor-in-Chief. In order to maintain the integrity of the process, neither the peer reviewers nor the copy editors are allowed access to author identity until a manuscript is accepted for publication. This process allows the current content editors the opportunity to utilize skills learned through their work while at the same time, protects the double-blind peer review process.

In this issue, it is apparent that working on the journal is beneficial to the editors; I'm proud to announce that two of our own team members have articles that passed the extensive double-blind peer review. In fact, our graduating editorial team member, Brighid Mooney-Gonzales, is the recipient of the 2014 LITA/Ex Libris Student Writing Award for her paper titled "Linking Libraries to the Web: Linked Data and the Future of the Bibliographic Record", as well.

This issue's theme celebrates the changing face of the library professional and the willingness of librarians to incorporate rapidly changing technology into their world in order to continue to provide free and accessible information to the public.

The Invited Contribution is submitted by Dr. Debra L. Hansen, a professor at SLIS; her essay, "First Class: Pioneering Students at San José State University's School of Library and Information Science, 1928-1940", relates the story of the lives of the first students of the SLIS program, and the development of the program itself. According to her article, there were twelve full-time and five special studies students enrolled in the first year. Part of the requirements for admittance for the full-time students were that they had to "possess reading knowledge of two languages" and two years of college. The special students were

allowed to use their previous library training or work experience in lieu of the requirements. Dr. Hansen is the author of the book, *A Pioneering and Independent Spirit: The History of San José State University's School and Library and Information Science,* published in 2010.

The Library and Information Science program has developed considerably since this first class of students and Brighid Mooney-Gonzales' article reflects that progress in its discussion of how best to prepare LIS students for metadata librarianship. "Preparing LIS Students for a Career in Metadata Librarianship," offers original research on the various educational and work paths a library student can pursue for the goal of being a metadata librarian. The article explains the difference between cataloguing and metadata and discusses how these two fields overlap and complement each other. I found it interesting that while Dr. Hansen discusses the requirement for the first library students to know two languages, now it's becoming a requirement for modern librarians to know the language of coding and technology.

Stephanie Routhier-Perry's literature review on digitization and digital preservation provides an overview of current literature on the state of digital preservation. She defines digitization as the conversion of traditional, analog materials into an electronic, digital copy. This differs from digital preservation, which is defined as conservation of digital material including items born digital and those that have been digitized. Copyright and cost issues play into the digitization and digital preservation issues, as Routhier-Perry cites research indicating it may be time-consuming, expensive, and difficult to establish copyright on older or digitized materials.

Privacy is another issue that arises in digitization; Camila Z. Tessler addresses that concern in her article "Privacy, Restriction, and Access: Legal and Ethical Dilemmas". Tessler, a recent LIS student at the University of Arizona, contends that "privacy is the crux of any archive's collection policy" due to the restrictions placed on a collection. She concludes that solutions to this problem can be found in developing stronger copyright and restricted materials policies, strong accession policies, and strong community input.

As this first issue of *SRJ*'s fourth volume is published, I'd like to acknowledge and thank Dr. Anthony Bernier, our faculty advisor; Suzanne Scott, *SRJ*'s first Editor-in-Chief; and all the dedicated editorial team members from this issue and past issues. The *Student Research Journal* has proven its worth as it advances scholarly research in the library information and science field, to both researchers and LIS graduate students worldwide.

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SLIS Student Research Journal

Volume 4 | Issue 1 Article 2

May 2014

First Class: Pioneering Students at San José State University's School of Library and Information Science, 1928-1940

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First Class: Pioneering Students at San José State University's School of Library and Information Science, 1928-1940

Cover Page Footnote
The author thanks Lisa Blank for providing the initial idea for this article. Inspiration was drawn from Dr. Blank's 2013 master's thesis that studied the lives and work of students in Redondo Beach Public Library's training program.

This invited contribution is available in SLIS Student Research Journal: http://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/slissrj/vol4/iss1/2

> The new education needs the service of the library teacher who can teach children to use printed material efficiently. In the past we have been too afraid that some teacher untrained in the essentials of librarianship would enter our field of work; we should have been afraid that we who know about librarianship should fail as teachers. School librarianship is a big responsibility. Let us all be "library teachers!" (Beymer, 1933, p. 9)

As school librarianship took shape as a new profession in the early 1930s, a point of controversy arose over the appropriate training for the field. Should the person in charge of the school library be a teacher with librarianship as a teaching specialty? Or was the school library, like any other library, to be administered by a degreed librarian? Mildred Beymer (1933), as evidenced by her California School Library Association (CSLA) *Bulletin* editorial quoted above, believed that a school librarian was first and foremost a teacher and merited being treated as such in the school where she worked. Why should the school librarian "carry her professional cognomen into the school," Beymer reasoned, when other teaching specialists in music, science, home economics, etc., did not (p. 9)?

Beymer's position on the teacher-librarian debate is not surprising. As one of the first graduates of San José State Teachers College's new library science program, her professional identity was shaped by and within the teaching field. Not only did she earn a BA in education (with a librarianship major) in 1930, during her schooling she had achieved membership in Kappa Delta Pi, an honor society for education majors. When she penned her editorial several years later, she was engaged as a teacher librarian at San Francisco's Roosevelt Junior High School.

This article examines the background and experience of the first group of students in San José State University's School of Library and Information Science (SLIS). Set within the broader context of state teachers colleges and the role these institutions played in developing and promoting women's professional work in the 1920s, this article analyzes how SLIS's pioneering students both represented and deviated from the typical teachers college student. It also considers the Great Depression's impact on the advancement of women in the professions, using the SLIS cohort to illustrate the challenges working women faced and how they confronted and, quite often, surmounted them.

San José State Teachers College

Established in 1857, San José State Teachers College had been educating elementary and high school teachers for over seventy years. Originally a "normal school" that exclusively awarded the teaching credential, in 1921 the college began offering a bachelor of arts degree and over the next decade continued to add new programs. As President Thomas MacQuarrie explained in his 1929 state of the school speech:

> We have developed out of the field of a limited teacher training institution, and we are rapidly taking on the character of the modern, municipal college . . . . Our organization, as it stands, is unique in college history, and many eyes are watching with interest the development taking place here. (*La Torre*, 1929 p. [15])

In the 1928-1929 academic year alone, San José State added four new degrees: nurse's training, commerce (i.e. secretarial training and accountancy), speech and stage craft, and librarianship (Greathead, 1928, p. 51). The predominance of feminized professions in these new programs clearly reflected the college's current demographics, since more than two-thirds of San

José State's 1,500 students were women (San José State Teachers College Bulletin, 1928/1929), p. 29).

According to Christine Ogren (2000), state teachers colleges—and their precursors, state normal schools—typically had a majority of women students preparing for careers in teaching or other education-based fields. In her study of seven state normal schools (including San José State), Ogren found that these teaching institutions "created an environment in which women could blossom" while affording them educational and professional opportunities often denied them by more exclusive and expensive universities (p. 213). Whether male or female, observed Ogren, the typical teachers college student was "mature in years, from a small provincial town or village, experienced in the workforce as a teacher or farmer, not well-off financially, and the first in the family to be educated beyond the common school" (p. 212). Moreover, as teachers colleges expanded in the 1920s, some women who otherwise might have become teachers pursued nontraditional fields such as law and politics (p. 225). Often postponing marriage to work in their chosen profession, these single women enjoyed opportunity and independence unknown to previous generations.

San José State's development of new degrees reflected not only women's increasing independence and expanding employment options in the 1920s, but also the professionalization of traditionally female occupations, such as teaching and librarianship (Scharf, 1980; Weiler, 2011). In California, for example, the state legislature established the Department of Education in 1921, and during the ensuing decade that agency improved the state's educational system and upgraded standards for teachers. As part of this modernization effort, the department gradually increased the requirements for teacher certification so that by 1930 California teachers were expected to have a four-year baccalaureate degree in education. The Department of Education

also created a series of specialized teaching credentials in subject areas requiring advanced knowledge and training (Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2011). Among these new degrees was the special credential in librarianship.

San José State's Department of Librarianship

Administrators and faculty at San José State's Teachers College closely monitored these state-mandated changes and acted quickly to develop courses satisfying the new degree requirements. The task of designing courses for the new school library credential fell to the college librarians. Constituting themselves as the "Department of Librarianship," head librarian Joyce Backus directed the new program while the librarians served as its faculty. With professional degrees from some of the nation's premier library science programs, including Simmons College (Joyce Backus), Columbia University (Helen Bullock), University of California, Berkeley (Joy Belle Jackson and Ruby Kerr), and Pittsburgh's Carnegie Institute (Emelyn Beattie), San José State's librarians were well prepared to create the new curriculum (Hansen, 2010). According to Backus, the department also enjoyed "splendid cooperation" from other San José State faculty who stepped forward during the first year to teach courses. Among others, Arthur Caryl of the Commerce Department offered a course on budgets and accounts, while the Art Department's Susan Byrne and Estelle Hoisholt developed courses on bookbinding and lettering ("Department of Librarianship," n.d., SJSU Archives, Box 139, Folder "1928/29).

Recognizing California's growing need for professional librarians, Backus and her library colleagues sought to create a curriculum that would simultaneously meet the requirements of the new teacher librarian credential and prepare students for work in other types of libraries. "While our objectives are chiefly training for school library work," explained Backus in her annual

report, "we'd like to fill the need for undergraduate training . . . which qualifies [students] for library work in the smaller libraries" ("Department of Librarianship," n.d., SJSU Archives, Box 139, Folder "1928/29").

San José State's librarians were mindful that their future students would likely be mature women with varying educational and professional backgrounds and needs. Accordingly, the librarians devised three educational options: 1) bachelor of arts degree that qualified an individual for both teaching and librarianship credentials; 2) bachelor of arts degree with a librarianship major that qualified an individual solely for the special credential in librarianship; and 3) one-year post-graduate program in librarianship for students who already had a bachelor's degree or teaching credential and were seeking only the librarianship credential. The department also supported a two-year junior college degree for students desiring training for "minor" positions in local libraries (San José State Teachers College *Bulletin*, 1928/1929, p. 108-111).

SLIS's First Students

Twelve full-time and five special students enrolled in San José State's library science program during its initial year. To be admitted, the full-time students had to have completed two years of college, possess reading knowledge of two languages, and be able to "typewrite accurately" (Board of Education for Librarianship Report, 20 November 1928, American Library Association Archives). The special students did not meet the college's entrance requirements, but because they had prior library training or work experience they were allowed to take courses to advance their careers (San José State Teachers College *Bulletin*, 1928/1929, p. 108-109). According to Backus, this first cohort was "enthusiastic and interested in their work" and helped get the program off to a "rather promising beginning" ("Department of Librarianship," n.d., SJSU Archives, Box 139, Folder "1928/29").

The names of 11 of these pioneering students have been identified: Edna B. Williams, Bertha "Benicia" de Niedman, Hollis V. Knopf, Grace Laughton, Mildred Beymer, Adelyn Skonovd, Bernice Sheld, Marian Bambauer, Elizabeth Souther, Doris M. Garcelon, and Dorothy E. Wood (Anita Hostedter to Joyce Backus, 5 February 1929, ALA Archives). Interestingly, their personal and professional lives were quite similar to the teachers college students depicted in Ogren's study (2000) discussed above. As expected, all students were women. In fact, it would be over two decades before San José State's Department of Librarianship would have its first male student. Also consistent with Ogren's model, the first group of students were fairly mature, with an average age of 28. This figure is somewhat misleading, though, as the students' actual ages varied significantly. Hollis Knopf and Dorothy Wood were just 19, while Adelyn Skonovd, Marian Bambauer, Mildred Beymer, Benicia de Niedman, and Bernice Sheld were in their twenties. Meanwhile Grace Laughton was in her thirties, while Doris Garcelon, Elizabeth Souther, and Edna Williams were in their forties.[1]

Most of the younger women were already working on degrees at San José State when they entered the new librarianship program. Knopf, for instance, had earned a junior college certificate in 1928 and finished her BA in 1930 (*La Torre,* 1928, p. 62; *La Torre*, 1930, p. 41). Skonovd and Baumbauer completed their BAs in 1929, while de Niedman, Beymer, and Wood graduated in 1930 (*La Torre,* 1929, p. 43, 52; *La Torre*, 1930, p. 45, 197). Several students were enrolled in other schools prior to entering San José State. Sheld had been a student at Modesto Junior College, while Beymer attended Riverside Public Library's training school and was working in the Riverside library before moving north. Although there is no record of Sheld graduating from San José State, Beymer (as noted above) was awarded her BA in 1930.

[1] Unless otherwise noted, this section's data comes from the genealogy records available through the Ancestry.com database. Most important were U.S. census reports, birth and death records, city directories, and voter registration records.

The program's more mature women were typically re-entry students who during the 1920s had been working and/or raising families. Thirty-four-year-old Grace Limerick Laughton, for example, had been a San José State student in the early 1920s, graduating with her BA in 1922. Thereafter she married and taught for several years—first in San José and later in Modesto—before returning to study library science. Edna Williams Murphy also previously attended San José State, graduating in 1915. Married with one child, it seems likely that she lived with or near her parents in Mountain View when she took library science courses in the late 1920s.

At 42, Elizabeth Souther was the library science program's oldest student. She had been employed in the San José area at least since 1920, including two years of secretarial work at San José State (*La Torre*, 1923, p. 19; *La Torre*, 1924, p. 14). After living in Oakland for a couple of years while attending school (most likely UC Berkeley or Mills College), she was back in San José in 1926 and working for the county superintendent of schools. In 1928, when she started taking library science courses, she was a San José Public Library employee.

Also similar to the model established by Ogren, the majority of SLIS's first students came from middle- and working-class backgrounds, though here again there were several exceptions.[2] All of the women were white and American-born. Six were California natives while others were born in Minnesota, Nebraska, Illinois, and Missouri. Their parents had more diverse backgrounds. Only two hailed from California originally, while others came from Illinois, Missouri, Minnesota, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Moreover, some were foreign-born: de Niedman's father was Russian, Sheld's parents Swedish, Garcelon's father Canadian, while Skonovod's parents were Norwegian and Swedish. Interestingly, except for Souther, all of

[2] Because of her common name and no identifying attributes in the San José State yearbooks and archives, verifiable family information for Dorothy Wood could not be located.

the students' parents migrated to California before or during their daughters' schooling in San José. In terms of class background, four of the students' fathers were farmers, one was a dairyman, and one ran a livery stable. Three other fathers, however, were professional men: Laughton's father a clergyman; de Niedman's father a U.S. Army surgeon; and Souther's father a banker. Among the students' mothers, only two had identified occupations: Skonovd's mother was a seamstress, while de Niedman's mother was a teacher.

Also true to Ogren's model, the women seeking their library degrees were in the first generation of their families to attend college. Based on data from the 1940 census, which asked respondents to indicate education level, those parents still living typically had either an eighth-grade education or several years of high school.[3] Here again there were a couple of interesting exceptions. De Niedman's father earned both medical and dentistry degrees from Howard University and her mother was a Kansas State Normal School graduate. Baumbauer's mother also had two years of college, though her father only went through the eighth grade.

One of the important byproducts of a college education, argues Ogren, is that "women were taken seriously as scholars" and introduced to leading writers and intellectuals of their time. They also participated in extracurricular activities, such as sports and debating societies, all of which "conveyed subtle lessons about women's potential" (p. 213). As their library science coursework was part of a four-year college degree, SLIS's first cohort similarly benefitted from this stimulating environment. They took a full array of professional courses (namely, cataloging, classification, reference, book selection, library administration, and school libraries), and, at the same time, were encouraged to enroll in academic classes to expand their general knowledge. Emphasizing the humanities and social sciences, the recommended courses for library science majors covered modern languages, art, child psychology, sociology, world literatures,

[3] This data is limited as only 11 parents were still living in 1940.

philosophy, and modern history (San José State Teachers College *Bulletin*, 1928/1929, p. 112-114).

Several of the students were also involved in campus activities. Knopf was a member of Der Deutsche Verein [German Club] and served on the YWCA Committee (*La Torre,* 1927, 1928). De Niedman was an editor of *The Quill*, a monthly literary magazine published by the English Club from 1925-1931 (*La Torre,* 1928, p. 165). The organization that attracted most library science students was Kappa Delta Pi, a national honor society for education majors established in 1911at the University of Illinois (Kappa Delta Pi, 2010). Wood, Bambauer, Beymer, and de Niedman were all members of this organization, with de Niedman serving as the organization's reporter in 1927 and Wood as the assistant treasurer in 1930 (*La Torre*, 1927, 1930).[4]

All of the first cohort members, save one, finished their studies by 1930, with Laughton completing her BA in 1932 (*La Torre*, 1932, p. 48).[5] Interestingly, in light of the 1929 stock market crash and the deepening economic depression, most were able to secure employment within a year or two of graduation. Bambauer, de Niedman, Beymer, and Laughton found positions in public schools. Frustratingly, the primary records for employment history—city directories, voter registration, and U.S. census reports—indicate only "teacher" as these women's occupation, so it cannot be positively determined if they were working as librarians. Yet, given the prevailing sentiment that school librarians were teachers specializing in librarianship, it's very likely that they were in charge of their respective school library. Mildred Beymer provides a good case in point. She is listed in the 1931 San Francisco city directory as a

[4] Interestingly, Kappa Delta Pi, unlike its rival honor society Phi Delta Kappa, allowed women and ethnic minorities to become members from its start (Kappa Delta Pi, 2010, p. 1-2).
[5] Not all of the students earned their BAs but did take enough coursework to qualify for city and county library positions.

"teacher." Yet, according to the School Library Association of California *Bulletin* (1936), she was the librarian at Roosevelt Junior High School (p. 23).

Other SLIS pioneers found jobs in academic and public libraries. Two were employed by college libraries: Knopf at Marin Junior College and Garcelon at Humboldt State College. Other graduates began their careers in public and county libraries. Souther continued working in the San José Public Library, Wood found employment in the Plumas County Library, while Sheld eventually landed a position in the Ceres branch of the Stanislaus County Library System.

Employment records for two of the students, Adelyn Sknovod and Edna Murphy, could not be found. Baumbauer and Wood also disappeared from the public record after 1931. This does not necessarily mean that they never worked as librarians or permanently left the profession early in their careers. Rather, it is more a reflection of record-keeping practices at that time and the prevailing attitudes that shaped them. The U.S. census recorded many personal details about family members, but omitted a married woman's maiden name. As a result, once a woman married her former self virtually disappeared. Similarly, city directories routinely included a woman's name, address, and occupation—until she married. Thereafter, a wife's name was listed in parentheses after her husband's, with no occupation indicated or expected. These "parenthetical" women also became effectively anonymous within the historical record.

The disappearance of married women from standard employment records also reveals the challenges women faced in the workplace, particularly in the 1930s.[6] During the Great Depression, because women were stigmatized as taking jobs away from family men, there was pressure on them to stop working after marriage (Ware, 1982, p. 27-28). As Lois Scharf (1980) found in her study of working women in the 1930s, even in feminized professions like

[6] Ogren's 2000 study, which derives from data collected as part of her PhD dissertation, ends at 1920. As a result, her analysis did not address the impact of the Great Depression on women college graduates.

librarianship, women often were replaced by men or forced to accept reduced wages. As an example, Scharf cites a 1938 survey of 57 libraries that inquired about institutional policies regarding married women. "Twelve of the libraries required resignation upon marriage, nine reported that wives were retained with temporary status, [and] ten stated they would not place a married woman in a position that entailed responsibility" (p. 103). As a result of this discrimination, by 1940 only 20% of employed librarians were married, as compared to 35.5% of working women overall (Scharf, p. 103).

Despite this social pressure, both unmarried and married women continued to work throughout the Depression. Unmarried women not only provided for themselves, they often lived with and supported their aging parents. Many married women also had to work to offset the lost wages of their unemployed or underemployed husbands. In fact, historians have found that despite prevailing attitudes regarding women and work, between 1930 and 1940 the overall number of women in the workforce increased by 2 million and the number of working married women doubled (Ware, 2009).

It was within this context, then, that the first graduates of San José State's library science program carved out careers, and their varied experiences exemplify the opportunities, limitations, and expectations of the time. At least five of the students are known to have married: Edna Murphy Williams, Mildred Beymer Graham, Hollis Knopf Erickson, Grace Limerick Laughton, and Adelyn Skonovd Lorraine. Murphy, Beymer and Skonovd had children, while Knopf and Laughton did not, though the 1930 U.S. Census indicates that Laughton's household included her mother and twin nieces.

These married women's careers appear to have been heavily influenced by their personal situation and their husband's status. Prior to their marriages, Beymer and Knopf not merely

found employment but quickly became involved in the profession. In addition to her job as a teacher-librarian at Roosevelt Junior High School, Beymer edited both the School Library Association of California (CSLA) *Bulletin* (1932-1933) and the CSLA *Handbook*. She also served on CSLA's Northern Section Elementary School Committee in 1930. While working at Marin Junior College, Knopf was also very involved in the professional library community. In the seven years following her graduation, she was associate editor of the CSLA *Bulletin* (1932-1933), CSLA Northern Section Secretary (1933-1935), CSLA Northern Section President (1935-1936), and CSLA Director (1936-1937). She also penned a regular column, "Wrinkles and Gadgets," in the CSLA *Bulletin* devoted to professional news and innovations.

Despite this dynamic start to their careers, marriage eventually curtailed both Beymer's and Knopf's professional engagement. Beymer married Everett Marvin Graham in 1934, and two years later the CSLA *Bulletin* (1936) reported, "Mrs. Mildred Beymer Graham, editor of the Handbook and for several years librarian of Roosevelt Junior High School in San Francisco, has resigned to take up the duties of housewife" (p. 23). Knopf, who married Herbert Erickson in 1935, continued working a bit longer, during which time she was instrumental in designing Marin Junior College's new library (Erickson, 1940). But in November 1941, the CSLA *Bulletin* ran a similar notice: "Hollis Erickson has decided that she wants more time to enjoy her home and her husband's company, and so she has taken a year's leave from Marin Junior College Library and is living near Campbell" (p. 18). The absence of subsequent employment data relating to these two women suggests that neither Beymer nor Knopf returned to the field.

Beymer and Knopf were fortunate to have employed husbands who were able to support their families during the depths of the Depression.[7] Other married SLIS graduates had more

[7] Beymer's husband was a chemist, while Knopf's owned a successful van and storage business. Both husbands had two years of college education as well.

unstable situations which, ironically, helped keep them in the profession. Grace Laughton provides a good example. She worked as a teacher in the Firebaugh (Fresno County) public schools before entering San José State's library science program, and after graduation she returned her former employer. She continued to work for most of the 1930s as a teacher-librarian in Firebaugh; however, her husband Calvin—a barber by trade—lived and worked in another part of the state. Apparently, in 1934 Grace reunited with Calvin in San José; he was listed in the city directory as a barber; she was included parenthetically. But within two years Grace returned alone to her former teaching post in Firebaugh, once again self-supporting.

Single women also had their careers shaped by family circumstances and responsibilities. First-generation Swedish-American Bernice Sheld finished only three years of college before returning to Modesto in 1930 to live with her parents. She never married and would live with or near her parents for the rest of their lives. Initially, Sheld worked as a bookkeeper for a prominent Modesto architect. Then, in January 1934, she became librarian at the Ceres Public Library. She worked there until December 1944, when she resigned to return to her former bookkeeping job with the Modesto architect (*Modesto Bee*, 27 December 1944). Sheld's decision to leave the library in late 1944 was likely influenced by her father's failing health, as he died in March 1945. Although already back living with her parents (she had lived alone in Ceres for several years), perhaps Sheld needed a higher wage or more flexibility. She lived with her widowed mother and worked as a bookkeeper until 1953, when she became a social worker for the county welfare office. She remained in this position until her early 1960s retirement.

An only child,[8] Benicia de Niedman also lived with, and perhaps helped support, her father and stepmother while employed as a teacher-librarian in San José. After her father's death

[8] De Niedman's half-brothers from her father's first marriage died in 1906 and 1907, the result of diseases contracted in the wake of the 1906 San Francisco earthquake. The photographs taken by Theodore de Niedman of

in 1938, de Niedman spent several years on her own in Pacific Grove, working in the public schools. By 1942, however, she was back living with her stepmother in San José and employed as a teacher-librarian. She would live and work in San José until her death in 1948.

Finally, Elizabeth Souther and Doris Garcelon, neither of whom married, both had long professional careers in public libraries. Souther, who was 44 in 1930, continued to work at San José Public Library during her time as a library science student. Then in 1933 she became librarian at Palo Alto Public Library, where she stayed for at least another decade. Garcelon obtained her first professional position in 1931 near her family's Eureka home at Humboldt State College. However, within a few years she moved back to the Bay Area with her widowed mother to take a job at the Redwood City Public Library. Sometime in 1941 Garcelon's mother returned to Arcata where she died in December 1942. Now independent, Doris moved further south to become librarian at the San Luis Obispo Public Library, where she stayed until retiring in the late 1950s.

Conclusion

September 1928 seemed an auspicious time for San José State College to start its new degree in school librarianship. The college had enjoyed a decade of steady growth, expanding its academic programs and modernizing its library and other campus facilities (Hansen, 2010). The college now offered a bachelor of arts degree in a variety of fields, giving its students—the majority of whom were women—a promising outlook for gainful employment. Few would have foreseen the economic disaster that began several months later as the nation faced a severe economic downturn. Especially hard hit were service professions dependent on government

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the earthquake and its aftermath are archived at the Bancroft Library (http://www.oac.cdlib.org/search?style=oac4;titlesAZ=t;idT=UCb186169735)

funding like teaching and librarianship. Societal factors, too, played an important role in discouraging middle-class women from entering the workplace during this trying decade.

The seventeen women who comprised San José State's first class were true pioneers. Primarily from working-class backgrounds, they were the first in their families to attend college and, upon graduation, find professional employment. In the process, they helped establish the college's new teacher-librarian program and then used their education to professionalize the libraries in which they worked. Given the challenging time, most of these women had to adjust their career plans in response to family needs and societal expectations. Yet a majority were able to enjoy substantial, if rather short-lived, professional careers.

To survive during the Great Depression, San José State's library science program had to adopt a similar strategy. Initially the founding faculty had ambitious plans, hoping to provide education for not only teacher-librarians but for other types of library work as well. However, the realities of library employment, combined with the pressures of accreditation, convinced head librarian Backus and her colleagues to modify their original goals and to focus exclusively on educating school librarians (Parker, 1974, pp. 23-24). San José State would continue to teach its library science courses within the School of Education for another two decades, waiting until the early 1950s to return to its original plan of offering a comprehensive library and information science degree.

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Preparing LIS Students for a Career in Metadata Librarianship

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Preparing LIS Students for a Career in Metadata Librarianship

While librarianship has historically been affected by advances in technology, the job titles of librarians have long reflected traditional areas of work such as reference and instruction, administration, cataloging, collections, circulation, youth services, and archives. Since the turn of the century, some of these technological changes have ushered in a shift from traditional library job titles to emerging job titles, such as virtual services librarian, digital librarian, electronic resources librarian, and metadata librarian. The shift from cataloging librarian to metadata librarian is one that has been especially gradual and complicated, since metadata can also encompass the work of traditional catalogers, including the description of printed texts, serials and multimedia resources, as well as the description and organization of digital materials (Veve and Feltner-Reichert, 2010).

Library science programs often now offer courses in metadata and other technology-focused subjects. However, the link between traditional cataloging and metadata work can be confusing for Library and Information Science (LIS) students interested in pursuing a career path in this emerging area. This study seeks to better inform the educational choices of LIS students interested in this field by answering questions about what library school courses and metadata standards they need to know to pursue a career in metadata librarianship. Among the data collected is information about the types and variety of job titles that can encompass metadata work, the type of libraries most likely to employ metadata specialists, common career trajectories for those working in metadata, training and education received before and after taking their current position, the most useful coursework to prepare for a career in metadata, and the metadata standards most commonly being used in library and information environments today. While the job duties involved in both cataloging and metadata work can overlap, students interested in metadata will be best prepared for work in the field if they have a strong foundation in traditional cataloging and the related standards, including practical hands-on experience, and a broad exposure to topics in metadata and technology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In NISO's booklet *Understanding Metadata* (2004), the group defines metadata as "structured information that describes, explains, locates, or otherwise makes it easier to retrieve, use, or manage an information resource" (p. 1). As such, traditional library cataloging using MARC21and AACR2 is a form of metadata, though "metadata" also describes schemes "developed to describe various types of textual and non-textual objects including published books, electronic

documents, archival finding aids, art objects, educational and training materials, and scientific datasets" (p. 1). While NISO defines cataloging as a form of metadata, "cataloging" can also refer explicitly to the description of print materials and "metadata" to the description of electronic or non-print materials.

As these types of materials have proliferated, so has the need for cataloging professionals to know and be able to use non-MARC metadata standards (Veve and Feltner-Reichert, 2010). Also increasing is the trend toward creating professional metadata librarian positions separate from traditional cataloging positions. The appearance of metadata-specific job titles in professional job listings has continued to increase in recent years, though the distinction from cataloging is not always clear. A number of positions incorporate cataloging and metadata into a single job title, or combine metadata work with other digitally-related responsibilities.

Cataloging and metadata positions include a great diversity in job titles. In a document outlining emerging career trends for information professionals, San Jose State University (2013) also found a wide variety of job titles representing the metadata and taxonomy fields. Some of the job titles they found in this area include "Resource Description Librarian," "Head of Metadata and Collections," and "Taxonomy Development Consultant." Park and Lu (2009) found that the titles of "Metadata Librarian" and "Catalog/Cataloging Librarian" appear most frequently throughout job listings, while slightly more than half of job titles contain the terms catalog, cataloger or cataloging. Park and Lu (2009) also found an increase in job titles relating to electronic resources as electronic periodicals increasingly replace print journals. Han and Hswe (2009) suggest that the emergence of metadata librarian job listings "reflects the changing role of cataloging librarians as well as a shift in library resources and technology" (p. 129).

Another trend is library delegation of cataloging responsibilities to paraprofessionals and other support staff, leaving professional catalogers to take on additional duties. Some of the non-cataloging duties now frequently required of cataloging librarians include "management, supervisory, leadership and policy related responsibilities" (Glasser, 2007, p. 44). Sometimes these professionals remain classified as cataloging librarians, while other times they take on new or combined titles, such as metadata librarian, or cataloging and metadata librarian respectively.

In spite of merging job titles and responsibilities in cataloging and metadata positions today, there can still be some distinction made between the two. Han and Hswe (2009) suggest that the role of metadata librarian has evolved out of the cataloging librarian position. However, it has only been in the last 5 to 10 years that the number of metadata librarian positions posted has seen a significant increase. At the same time, the number of cataloging librarian

positions has decreased (Han and Hswe, 2009). Han and Hswe (2009) claim the main distinction between cataloging and metadata positions is in the need for increased technology knowledge. While catalogers are often required to have knowledge of a foreign language, metadata librarians are "required to know a variety of metadata standards and have a facility for the IT [information technology] used for metadata sharing" (p. 135).

Calhoun (2007) suggests that there is an increasing need for metadata librarians to undertake the "organization of unstructured data," for which ease of access depends on their ability to develop and use "new automated tools for organizing, classifying, and discovering a very large volume of unstructured but useful data" (p. 180). Park and Lu (2009) report that the core areas of knowledge required for metadata librarians include "Electronic Resources Management (64.5%), Awareness of Trends (55.1%), and Digital Library Development (48.6%)" (p. 152), but also note that general cataloging is still considered a primary responsibility for metadata professionals.

Throughout the literature, a variety of other skills, in addition to traditional cataloging skills, are cited as important for those in the metadata field. Some of these include "computer skills, oral and written communication skills, teaching skills, and knowledge of non-MARC metadata standards" (Glasser, 2007, p. 45). Metadata specialists may also find it necessary to maintain a "knowledge and familiarity with the new developments in the field" as well as writing technical documents, giving presentations, and working closely with "system administrators, interface designers, Web masters, and other technology-intensive positions" (Chapman, 2007, p. 281-282). Metadata professionals are often also required to take on "management activities such as administration, coordination, overseeing, supervision, policymaking, and strategic planning" (Park and Lu, 2009, p. 154). Calhoun (2007) writes that the future of libraries is in access systems and that "just as catalogers played the central role in creating nineteenth- and twentieth-century tools -- the card and online catalogs -- metadata specialists will be needed to help build these new kinds of access systems" (p. 183).

Metadata librarians are also expected to have familiarity with and be able to use a variety of non-MARC metadata standards in addition to MARC and AACR2. Han and Hswe (2009) found that Dublin Core was one of the most frequently cited non-MARC standards required for metadata librarians, while Park and Lu (2009) named Dublin Core, EAD, MODS, TEI and VRA Core as the most important. Hsieh-Yee (2003) listed Dublin Core, AACR and metadata crosswalks as the top standards needed by metadata experts, while Hall-Ellis (2006) found employers frequently identified EAD, TEI and metadata for web pages as the most needed. Veve and Feltner-Reichert (2010) also found Dublin Core to be the non-MARC schema most often used by catalogers, though they reported many others, including local and customized schemas, were also in use.

While the skills and knowledge cited as necessary varies widely throughout the literature, the common themes are technology and knowledge of current and emerging standards. Also appearing frequently in the literature is the need for LIS graduate programs to catch up to evolving demands for skilled metadata specialists and better prepare students for the work they will face upon entering the field. Hall-Ellis (2009) found that a significant number of employers "preferred that applicants had passed at least one cataloging and classification course" (p. 42); however, in some programs students are not given the opportunity to take much beyond an introductory cataloging course. Dulock (2011) interviewed new catalogers and found that the library science programs attended by interviewees offered an average of three cataloging courses. Dulock also found that 88% of the sample schools attended by interviewees required at least one cataloging course for graduation.

Fifty percent of interviewees in Dulock's study indicated they would have liked to have taken additional cataloging courses, or more advanced cataloging coursework, in order to be better prepared for their positions. Dulock also found that students who did not participate in a cataloging practicum felt less prepared for their professional cataloging positions than students who did. In a case study on teaching RDA to LIS students, Veitch, Greenberg, Keizer and Gunther (2013) found that "significant hands-on experience with real RDA records" (p. 356), in addition to a theoretical background (both of which were provided by their RDA Boot Camp), resulted in the most successful learning experience, further suggesting the need for practical experience in cataloging and metadata endeavors.

Hall-Ellis (2006) asserted that "metadata courses need to become regular offerings for graduate students who specialize in cataloging. Without the availability of courses that focus on metadata schemes, LIS graduates will enter the community of practitioners unprepared to work as catalog librarians" (p. 48). Hsieh-Yee (2003) also found that cataloging education had been greatly reduced, replaced by a "pattern of providing general coverage of cataloging in a required introductory course" (p. 13) instead of a detailed practical cataloging course.

Glasser (2007) suggests that students interested in pursuing cataloging attend conferences, join local and national library organizations, attain part-time work or an internship in a cataloging department, or seek out an independent study in cataloging. Park, Tosaka, Maszaros and Lu (2010) also found that the majority of metadata specialists in their study were interested in pursuing professional development opportunities, primarily through attending workshops and conferences. Respondents also expressed a strong need for more development opportunities in the study of markup languages and in the cataloging of non-print materials.

The consensus across the literature is that rather than decreasing cataloging course offerings, schools should increase course offerings for in-depth cataloging concepts as well as specialized metadata concepts. In addition to taking multiple cataloging or metadata courses, students are advised to pursue practical experience in the form of internships or practicums to supplement their classroom education with hands-on experience.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted to collect information beneficial to LIS students interested in a career in the field of metadata, including relevant information on the most helpful coursework to take in school and metadata standards that are currently in use. Data was collected by means of a short questionnaire (see Appendix A) which was posted online and disseminated through a number of online channels, including Metadata Librarians Listserv, DC-General Listserv, Collib and AutoCAT. The survey link was sent out with a brief description of the type of questions being asked and the purpose of the study, with a request for those currently working with metadata in a professional capacity to follow the link to complete the survey anonymously.

Data was collected from those voluntarily electing to complete the survey with a total of 97 responses. Of the ten questions asked, respondents were only required to answer the first, and as such the remaining questions have differing numbers of responses which are accounted for in the findings section. For questions which allowed respondents to write in an open answer, responses were categorized according to similarities and counted together to reach the totals listed. Although the sample size of the survey is relatively small and non-exhaustive, and so cannot be generalized to the entire metadata field, the results show several broad trends which can provide useful guidance for current LIS students interested in this area.

FINDINGS

The survey data showed a wide variety in the job titles of those working with metadata in a professional capacity. The most common job titles were metadata specific titles such as “Metadata Librarian” or “Metadata Specialist,” with 30.93% of the 97 respondents falling into this category. Also common were job titles featuring a combination of metadata and cataloging, such as “Cataloging and Metadata Librarian” or “Monographic Cataloger and Metadata Specialist,” representing 17.50% of respondents. Those consisting only of cataloging and/or technical services titles such as “Catalog Librarian,” “Acquisitions and Cataloging Librarian” and “Head of Technical Services,” represented 19.59% of respondents.

The remainder of respondent’s job titles were scattered across various

categories, such as those with non-specialized librarian titles ("Assistant Librarian") at just over five percent; job titles which combined digital services and metadata ("Metadata and Digital Initiatives Librarian") at just over six percent; job titles consisting only of digital ("Digital Projects Librarian") at just over four percent; and those in archives ("Digital Archivist," "Archivist for Metadata and Encoding") at just over five percent. A full 11.34% of respondents had job titles falling into the "other" category, or those not easily fitting into any of the other categories. These included job titles such as "Information Architect," "Assistant Professor," and "Education Assistant." Table 1 shows the percentage and number of respondents broken out by category of job title.

Job Title	**Number**	**Percentage**
Metadata-Specific Title	30	30.93%
Cataloging Only/Technical Services	19	19.59%
Metadata and Cataloging Combined	17	17.50%
Other	11	11.34%
Metadata and Digital Combined	6	6.19%
Non-Specialized Librarian Title	5	5.15%
Archives	5	5.15%
Digital Only	4	4.12%
Total	**97**	**100%**

Table 1: Breakdown of job titles reported by survey-takers by number and percentage of respondents.

In answering the question of what percentage of their job involves working directly with metadata, 15.63% of the 96 respondents who answered this question stated that 100% of their time was devoted to metadata work, while 17.71% spent less than 50% of their time working with metadata. The remaining respondents, or 66.67%, indicated that they spent more than 50% but less than 100% of their time on metadata work.

The vast majority of the 96 respondents who answered the question related to their place of employment were employed at an academic library (77.08%), while over nine percent worked in either public libraries, digital libraries, special libraries or corporate/business libraries. Thirteen respondents (13.54%) indicated that they worked in "other" environments such as government, non-profit, or museums.

Respondents also reported using a wide variety of metadata standards in their work. Ninety-four respondents answered the question asking what standards

they currently use in their work and the vast majority listed two or more standards each. The most common of these were traditional cataloging standards such as MARC and AACR2, as well as the newly developed RDA, which is slowly replacing these. These traditional cataloging standards together were listed a total of 60 times. The second most frequently listed standard was Dublin Core, appearing 56 times. While 29 different metadata standards were listed as being commonly used by the respondents, 12 of these only appeared one time each in the final list. The 12 most frequently mentioned standards listed by those responding appear in Table 2.

Metadata Standards	**Times Mentioned**
MARC/AACR2/RDA	60
Dublin Core	56
MODS	19
XML	13
VRA Core	12
METS	9
EAD	5
DACS	5
PREMIS	5
Custom/Local Schemas	4
RDF	4
TEI	4

Table 2: Most frequently used metadata standards as reported by respondents

The job titles held by respondents before assuming their current position are equally as varied, although the majority of the 85 respondents who answered this question came into the metadata field from a cataloging or technical services position. A total of 35.96% fell into this category, with previous job titles such as "Cataloging Librarian," "Bibliographic Services," or "Electronic Services." A large percentage of respondents also named previous job titles which fell into the "other" category such as "Project Manager," "Consultant," and "Analyst," accounting for 17.98% of respondents. Those who came into their current position from a previous metadata position, with titles such as "Metadata Librarian" or "Metadata Specialist," represented 12.36% of respondents; while a slightly higher

percentage (13.48%) reported that they were either a student or an intern before taking their current position. The remainder were scattered across various categories such as digital ("Digital Materials Librarian") at almost nine percent, a combination of metadata and cataloging ("Cataloging and Metadata Projects Librarian") and non-specialized library titles ("Library Assistant") at just over three percent each, and reference/public services ("Reference Assistant") and archives ("Project Archivist") at just over two percent each. Table 3 shows the job areas in which respondents were employed before taking their current position, broken out by percentage.

Previous Position	**Times Mentioned**	**Percentage**
Technical Services or Cataloging	32	35.96%
Other	16	17.98%
Intern/Student	12	13.48%
Metadata-Specific Job Title	11	12.36%
Digital	8	8.99%
Metadata and Cataloging Combined	3	3.37%
Non-specific Library Position	3	3.37%
Archives	2	2.25%
Reference/Public Services	2	2.25%
Total	**89**	**100%**

Table 3: Previous job titles of current metadata librarians as reported by respondents.

Ninety-three participants answered the question asking what kind of experience they had working with metadata before taking their current position. Each respondent was able to select as many options as applied to them, accounting for the total of over 100%. The majority of respondents had experience working with metadata from a previous job (75.27%), while a large percentage also gained experience from school coursework (64.52%). Another 38.71% indicated they had gained experience through internships and 36.56% gained experience through professional development outside of library school.

Nearly 80% of a total of 96 respondents indicated that they received metadata training by their employer after accepting their current position. While 21.88% indicated that they received no additional training after starting their

current position, the remainder received additional training in metadata through professional development courses, workshops, employer-sponsored training or on-the-job training.

Many respondents also received metadata-specific education while they were in library school. Forty-seven out of the 94 respondents answering this question indicated that they took a metadata-specific course in library school, while another 29 indicated that they had taken a course that covered metadata within a broader subject area. Many respondents who commented on this question wrote that they had taken only a cataloging course ("When I was in Library school it was called Cataloging."), or that they attended library school before metadata courses were offered ("When I went to library school 22 years ago, there were no such classes").

Respondents were also asked to list the courses they took in library school that they find most helpful in their current position. The 86 respondents answering this question listed 37 different courses as being the most useful to their current work, though over half of these (19) were listed only one time each. After taking into account courses from different schools that may cover the same subject under slightly different names, the most frequently appearing courses are aggregated in the graph in Table 4. The most useful course by far was cataloging which was named by respondents a total of 45 times. Metadata also appeared frequently, named by respondents 25 times. The other courses named most frequently include organization of information, advanced cataloging, digital libraries/digital collections, XML, indexing, database design/management, programming, management/administration and archives.

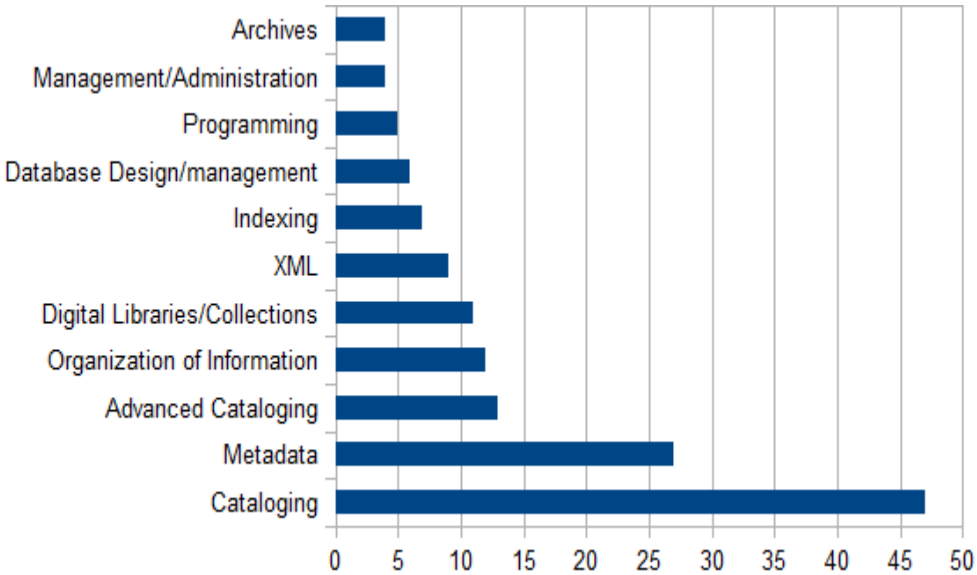

Table 4: Most useful courses taken by Metadata Librarians as reported by survey respondents.

Taking the knowledge of their current job responsibilities into account, respondents were asked to name which courses they did *not* take in school, but that they most find themselves wishing they had taken. Again, many courses were listed only one or two times, but the subject areas shown in the graph in Table 5 indicate those subjects named most often by the 71 respondents who answered this question. By far the course most respondents felt they needed was some form of advanced metadata course or a metadata course covering emerging standards in the field, which appeared 20 times throughout the responses. Programming courses were also named frequently (13 times), with most respondents requesting general programming skills, while some named specific languages such as PHP or Python. Advanced cataloging courses were listed 10 times, after grouping together instances of "advanced cataloging", "image cataloging" and "serials cataloging." Also frequently mentioned was a course on XML/XSLT (7 times).

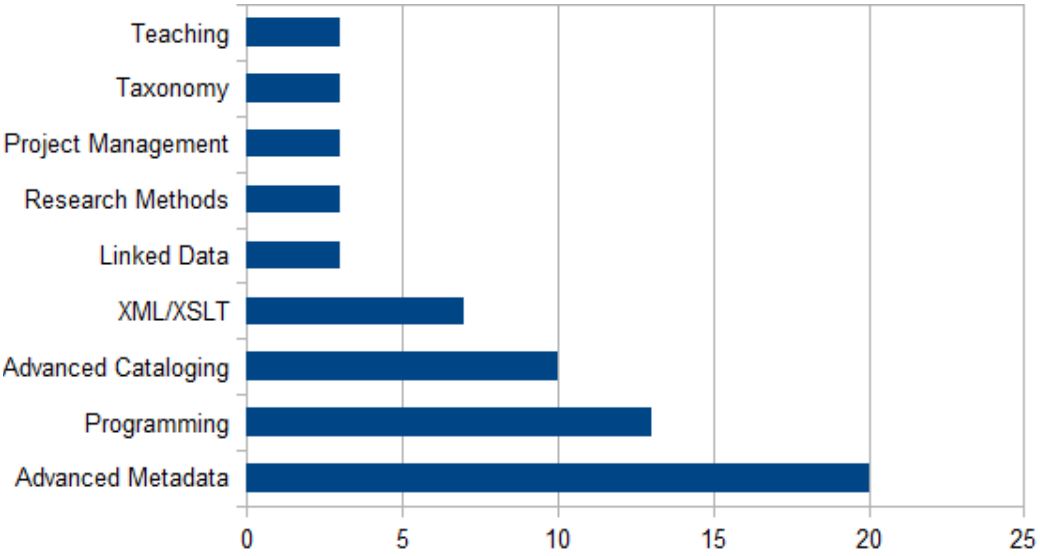

Table 5: Courses Metadata Librarians most wish they had taken in school as reported by survey respondents.

DISCUSSION

While the results of the survey represent only a small portion of those currently working in the metadata field, there were many reoccurring themes which appeared throughout the survey results. The variety of job titles of those working with metadata suggests that this is still an area of transition that does not yet represent its own specific field. A sizable percentage of respondents who are currently working with metadata have job titles that are related to cataloging or technical services. This may be partially due to the inclusion of traditional

cataloging standards such as MARC and AACR2 in the definition of metadata. It could also be representative of the current need for librarians to perform multiple job duties regardless of title. The equally large number of respondents with job titles incorporating both cataloging and metadata also speaks to this trend in combining not only job duties, but titles as well. However, the largest category of job titles for those responding consisted of a metadata-specific title. This could reflect the increasing number of jobs appearing with metadata in the title, or it could also be due to the design of the survey. Since the survey was geared toward those working with metadata, those working solely with traditional cataloging standards may have been less likely to participate.

The percentage of their work that respondents devote specifically to metadata was also quite varied. While 16% of those responding devote 100% of their time to working with metadata, the remainder of respondents indicated that they spent less than 100% of their time on metadata (with 18% spending less than 50% of their time on metadata), reinforcing earlier studies that found that work in these areas of librarianship is often combined with other job duties (Glasser 2007, Chapman 2007, Park and Lu 2009).

The overwhelming majority of respondents answered that they work in an academic library, which could suggest that academic libraries are those most likely to employ librarians specifically for metadata work, or again, that those working in public libraries identify only as catalogers and therefore were less likely to respond to the survey.

The results to the question asking for the respondents' most commonly used metadata standards are also quite varied, with a large number of individual standards being named (including local or custom schemas). However, the most common non-MARC standard being used was Dublin Core, echoing earlier findings by Han and Hswe (2009), Park and Lu (2009), Hsieh-Yee (2003) and Veve and Feltner-Reichert (2010). For students looking for advice about which standards to take courses in or to gain experience in, these findings suggest that it would be the most beneficial to study traditional cataloging formats along with Dublin Core while in school, and wait to explore other schemas until they know which ones will be used by their employer.

The results of the survey also offer a glimpse into possible career trajectories and educational paths for LIS students hoping to enter this field. The majority of respondents came into the metadata field from a career in cataloging or technical services, suggesting students interested in metadata work may want to focus on these areas during school and while searching for an entry-level position. However, the wide variety of other positions from which metadata librarians entered the field also suggests that there are many positions that can give one the necessary experience working with metadata. Additionally, 14% of those responding were students or interns prior to taking their current position,

suggesting that there are entry-level metadata positions to be found, or that on-the-job training is still a possibility in some organizations. With 80% of respondents answering that they had received additional metadata training after entering their current position, job-specific training through workshops, professional development courses or on-the-job training appears to be a common way of gaining and refining a current skill set. One respondent commented that "The best training and education I received has been on the job and through professional organizations such as ALCTS."

For those still in library school, the results of the survey offer numerous suggestions for course planning. Combining the results of the most helpful courses taken by respondents in library school with the courses respondents indicated they wished they had taken, the survey results indicate the most useful courses for current students hoping to enter the field of metadata are, in this order:

- cataloging
- metadata/advanced metadata topics
- advanced cataloging topics
- general programming
- XML
- organization of information

In spite of the focus on cataloging and metadata courses, however, respondents also stressed the importance of practical experience in addition to their education, echoing the findings from Dulock (2011) and Veitch et al (2013). One respondent wrote that "my cataloging and indexing courses gave me a solid foundation to be a cataloger. My work experience as a cataloger gave me a solid foundation to be a metadata librarian." Another wrote that even though he/she regretted not taking the school's metadata course, he/she was "not sure without real-life, on-the-job scenarios it would have been as beneficial." Practical experience was mentioned several times as being as or more important than courses taken in school. "Texts and classes are fine," one respondent wrote, "but the real challenge comes once you get out into the wilds."

Many respondents also stressed the importance of computer and programming courses, one even writing that such classes "should be compulsory in library school." Another respondent echoed the importance of learning some kind of computer programming, suggesting "coding! Working with code. Wrangling code," as important knowledge, while another suggested that "it is critical for metadata librarians today to know XSLT."

Along with general programming courses, participants also mentioned advanced metadata topics (or a course covering emerging metadata standards) most often as those not offered by their school, but important for building a foundation for working in the metadata field. This may be an area for further

study as to the possible need for updating current library school curriculum to adequately cover the training necessary for work in this field.

CONCLUSION

The data in this study show that the field of metadata is one still in transition, where job titles and responsibilities are making the shift from traditional cataloging to non-MARC resource description. Even though occurrences of metadata job postings have risen as cataloging job postings have decreased, rather than being replaced, the cataloging field is integrating non-MARC metadata in response to libraries' increasing focus on the collection of electronic resources.

The data collected in this study show that there are a variety of job titles that can encompass metadata work, thus students searching for jobs in this field should consider additional keywords in their searches. And while a large variety of early-career positions can help to prepare employees for later work in the metadata field, a focus on traditional cataloging can help to lay a solid foundation for skills that will be needed by future metadata librarians.

Students should expect to continually supplement their education with professional development opportunities, such as workshops and conferences, even after becoming employed in the field. As library collections are likely to continue in the direction of electronic and Internet accessible resources, library schools will need to keep an eye on current technological trends and make the changes necessary to keep their curriculum as relevant as possible.

The findings from this study support the idea that a strong foundation in cataloging is the best preparation for a career in metadata, and students interested in this field should seek out courses on basic and advanced cataloging, metadata, and general programming, particularly XML. Students will also find great value in attaining hands-on experience in a cataloging or metadata practicum or internship, in addition to their classroom instruction.

Appendix A
Metadata Librarian Survey

1. What is your job title? (required)

_____

2. What percentage of your job directly involves working with metadata?

- 100%
- More than 75%
- More than 50%
- Less than 50%

3. In what type of library do you work?

- Public Library
- Academic Library
- Digital Library
- Special Library
- School Library
- Corporate/Business
- Other _____

4. What experience did you have with metadata before accepting your current position?
Professional development courses

- ❏ Previous job(s)
- ❏ Internship(s)
- ❏ School coursework
- ❏ Professional development (outside of library school)
- ❏ Other (please specify) _____

5. What kind of training did you receive in metadata after accepting your current position?

- ❏ Professional development courses
- ❏ Workshops
- ❏ Employer-sponsored training
- ❏ On the job training
- ❏ No additional training

6. What was your job title in your most recent job prior to your current position?

_____

7. Did you take a metadata class in library school?

- Metadata specific course
- Course that covered metadata as a topic within a broader subject area
- Other (please specify) _____

8. What metadata standards do you commonly use in your current position?

_____

9. What courses from library school do you find most helpful in your current position?

_____

10. What courses do you wish had been offered that were not?

_____

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Digitization and Digital Preservation: A Review of the Literature

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Digitization is rapidly becoming one of the standard forms of preservation for libraries, archives and information centers' analog materials. This newer process is allowing preservationists to ensure information contained within fragile, organic materials will still be viewable to future generations. However, as technology changes, there are concerns that the methods used today to preserve these materials are not going to be sufficient or even viable in the future. Software and formats change very quickly, and could be obsolete in a relatively short time period. This applies both to hard copy materials that are converted into digital copies, as well as born-digital items, or those who were created as digital copy initially. For this reason, digitization is not strictly a preservation activity, as the new files will require preservation as well. It is important to understand what digital preservation is, and how it can be effectively used to preserve collective knowledge for future generations.

There is a wealth of information on this topic in the literature today, and finding relevant articles and sources is not difficult. There are different schools of thought on digital preservation; some see it as the most important advancement in the topic of preservation, while others feel that it is not the only or even the best solution to keeping information safe. While there are opposing views on some aspects of digitization and digital preservation, there are also areas where most authors seem to agree. Budgetary issues, professional education, and increased technological currency are frequently mentioned as challenges in the field, and the need for better and more in-depth education, cost-sharing initiatives, and cooperation are universal suggestions.

This is a field where changes happen very fast. What was current at one time becomes out-dated quickly. The objective of this paper is to define the differences between digitization and digital preservation, and to get a broad overview of the current state of digital preservation. There are many subtopics within this field, and each of them are worthy of more in-depth study. However, this review will discuss the topic as a whole.

What are Digitization and Digital Preservation?

Digitization is the conversion of traditional, analog materials such as books, maps, and other paper items into an electronic, digital copy. This is not to be confused with digital preservation; as Conway (2010) notes, "It is important to establish clear distinctions between the terms 'digitization for preservation' and 'digital preservation'" (p. 64). Digital preservation is the conservation of all digital materials, whether they were born digital, such as emails, websites, videogames, and other electronic files, or whether they have been digitized from analog materials (Conway, 2010). Although digitization is often seen as preservation, this is not the case. According to Smith (2007), "Much is gained by digitizing, but

permanence and authenticity…are not among those gains". Digitizing may allow greater access to an artifact, but it comes with its own challenges.

Digital records have many the same function requirements that paper ones do. In other words, the work required by professionals to transfer, process, store, and preserve files, which allows a user to retrieve the desired information, applies both to analog and digital records (Galloway, 2009). However, of the main difficulties surrounding digital preservation compared with that of paper-based records is that the analog materials are much easier to maintain. Apart from storage and maintenance concerns, if a library or archive can keep its materials in an appropriate facility, files are relatively easy to preserve. Once an item has been digitized, however, that new version requires continuous, ongoing maintenance for as long as the record is to be kept. This presents huge cost and time implications for the facility (Sanett, 2013).Additionally, when it comes to digital materials, there is a large difference between storage and preservation. Storage is simple, as there is enough space in hard drives or in the cloud for as much material as can be created. The difficulty is that even if the stored data is intact, it may not be available or accessible, due to technological changes or human error in naming conventions. Preservation, that is, keeping the information available and usable for future generations, requires much more complex actions (Brand, 1999).

Differences in digital preservation needs occur depending on the type of institution involved. Libraries usually have published materials, which mean there is often more than one, and usually many, copies of the same artifact. Preserving the original material is important, but the information contained within is often more important to users (Galloway, 2009). Conversely, archives contain material that is unpublished and one of a kind. In this instance, both the information contained and the original artifacts themselves have intrinsic value. It is important for both libraries and archives to preserve the authenticity of an artifact, as well as the source of the object, the questions surrounding where it came from, whom it came from, and in what context it was created (Galloway, 2009).

Digitization and therefore digital preservation are no longer emerging tools; they are now the preferred and accepted practice for saving many analog records. Libraries and archives are in a transitional period and many are moving away from print into a primarily, or, in some cases, entirely, digital format (Moghaddam, 2010). Users expect instant access to materials wherever they are, and the only way this can be achieved is by digitization (Conway, 2010). It is important that future users will be able to access the information, be able to tell whether the information is accurate and preserved as it was intended to be, and use it in their intended way (Gladney, 2009).

Challenges

Although the act of digitizing analog materials, and the ensuing preservation of those materials, has many benefits and much to offer, it is not without challenges. Some of the main concerns include issues involving human error, data loss, fading memory, lack of effective education, and technological obsolescence (Kastellec, 2012). Despite the ready availability of mobile technology and hardware devices, digital resources are both human and machine dependant, which is perhaps one of their greatest limitations (Moghaddam, 2010). Knowing what to preserve, and the best method to use, is a major concern for professionals, and one that requires specialized training.

Changing Formats and Obsolescence of Technology

In addition to the technical difficulties, many of the issues surrounding digital preservation involve an institution's willingness to manage their digitized data (Teper, 2005). It must be acknowledged that that digital technology is not the only answer, and that hard copies of artifacts and materials are still very important. Acid-free paper and microfilm can last for 500 years in a library that is air-conditioned and dry, but digital files become obsolete every few years at best (Brand, 1999).

Quickly changing digital technologies are one of the most serious challenges associated with digital preservation. Because there is no way of knowing what formats or procedures people will be using 50 or 100 years from now, it is more important to focus on a shorter time frame. If professionals focus on the coming five, ten or even twenty years, they are more likely to have a better idea of what the practices will be (Gladney 2009). Software corporations are both part of the problem and the solution, as due to commercial interest, the devices, software and formats used to store information are often designed for obsolescence. In other words, corporations that design these methods design them with a shelf life in order to ensure the sales of latest upgrades and models (Reyes, 2013). Digitization has many useful benefits, but if professionals cannot devise useful storage and retrieval techniques, there is the fear that future historians may find the current period a "dark age" of information from which little has survived.

One of the most significant events in an artifact's history is when there is a transfer from the original format to a successor. Any efforts to reformat an object and turn it into a digital file will result in the loss of some of the value of the original; therefore, care must be taken to ensure that the correct procedures are followed. All changes to files, once created, must be documented and embedded into the metadata in order to preserve the integrity of the information (Gracy & Kahn, 2012). Additionally, each successive record must have a copy saved for

archival purposes before the record is used, in order to ensure each step in the artifact's life has been preserved. Once a file has been changed, a signature or Digital Resource Identifier (DRI) should be used, especially for items that have more than one version being preserved over time; for example, updated versions of the same file (Gladney, 2009). Because these considerations are subjective, a framework is necessary, and professional associations are developing suggestions on this matter, including the code of ethics developed by the American Institute for Conservation (AIC). This code outlines actions that a preservationist should follow, such as to "strive to select methods and materials that, to the best of current knowledge, do not adversely affect cultural property or its future examination, scientific investigation, treatment, or function" (AIC, 2013, para. VI).

The US National Archives & Records Administration (NARA) holds that if something is worth preserving digitally, it must be preserved as close as possible to its original state (Galloway, 2009). This will guarantee the authenticity of the item and preserve it for historical study. It is also best to work with both digital and hard copy mediums to ensure safekeeping of all types of knowledge contained in a material, as digitization is only possible if works have been preserved in a more traditional format as well. Preservation strategies are more important that the actual formats used, and migration strategies for formats must be decided upon (Tennant, 1999).

There are a number of ways professionals can ensure that digitally preserved materials remain usable. It is important not only to preserve the record itself, but also the hardware and software it was created on and designed to be used with. Digital materials are very complex, and compression, encryption, and HTTP links that were active in original works make it much more difficult to extract meaning from a preserved artifact. Because it is often not possible to preserve a digital file exactly as it was when it was created or when it was analog, at the very least the focus must be on preserving the 'essence' of a file (Zorich, 2007). Emulators are computer programs designed to mimic or "emulate" other operating systems, and are one solution to outdated software or hardware (Galloway, 2009). Using an emulator allows users in the future to see exactly how the material would have looked, and by creating a similar operating environment to the original, helps the files to remain interactive. Because it is important to be able to see something in its original form whenever possible, in order to preserve historical authenticity, emulators would need to be created and updated regularly, as older technology becomes obsolete (Moghaddam, 2010).

When working with digital materials, there is the problem of mutability. An example of this is with a videogame. Watching the game is a very different experience than playing it, and it is difficult to get the full feel of the material when not using it in its intended context. Because of this, it is very important to

use the most descriptive metadata possible, in order to give future viewers a better understanding of what they are seeing (Brand, 1999). The format, the naming convention, and the reasons why certain aspects have been chosen will all likely be of interest to future historians, just as aspects of old artifacts, such as the binding used in an old book, or what was used for ink, are important to scholars today (Berger, 2009).

Untrained Staff and Human Error

Currently, humans are still performing most of the necessary acts of digital preservation. With human actions come human error, however, and many library and archives staff members do not have the required training and skills needed to carry out this important work. The professional skills needed include technical proficiency in areas such as encryption, metadata schema coding, and authentication, as well as traditional archiving skills which include cataloguing and classification (Sanett, 2013).

Despite an increase in library and information science (LIS) students taking digitization and digital preservation courses, many institutions do not have the budgetary funds for an archivist or trained librarian on staff, leading to increases in human error (Maberry, 2013). Using staff that have not been formally educated in digital archiving comes with risks. Photographic and audiovisual collections are especially prone to deterioration, and require specialists and an often large budget to care for them properly (Gracy & Kahn, 2012).

Digital preservation often competes with the traditional preservation of the original artifact, which leads to difficult decisions. With an increased demand for instant access to electronic records, administrators have to decide where to spend more money – on preserving the original material, or on ensuring instant access to a digital surrogate. Both types of preservation have similar requirements concerning time, expertise and budget, and is often a difficult choice for staff members when deciding where to focus their attentions (Gracy & Kahn, 2012). This issue requires properly trained staff, because a large portion of an organization's budget already goes toward the cost of facilities management, and considerations for off-site storage must be considered. Understanding what the most important artifacts are, and which should have precedence when preserving, is a difficult subject and will be different according to the needs of each institution and its users. With such an exponentially large and always growing bank of digital information, knowing what to save first is a difficult task (Maberry, 2009). It is important that professionals understand that when they make a choice on what to preserve first, they are also inadvertently choosing what might not be saved at all (Teper, 2005). Preservationists must determine what value an item or artifact currently has, and what it is likely to be in the future; taking content,

historical value, artifact condition, and the rarity of the item into consideration are important steps in choosing artifacts (Berger, 2009). Often, the intrinsic value of a book with all of its original information is preserved only when something has been deemed a "classic". However, this is a difficult task, and one that is subjective. How can one know what will be considered a classic in the future? Who decides whether something is important enough to preserve?

Additional parts of a book or other physical item, such as the jacket, typeface, paper, binding, and ink are all important parts of the artifact. When an artifact is digitally preserved, this information is lost, along with some of the intrinsic value. Reformatting also involves making choices about the text or artifact itself. The preservationist must decide what to put into a digital copy and what to leave out. Regardless of the choices made, this process will inherently change the document's meaning (Bee, 2008). Reformatting, or migration, is often necessary as a last resort, as hard copies will not last forever; however, it is important to note that any time a text is altered; it becomes more prone to error. As new technologies emerge and items are migrated repeatedly, it is not hard to imagine a product that hardly resembles the original (Bee, 2008).

Staff training and education are essential when digitizing or digitally preserving materials. A major problem with LIS educational programs has traditionally been a lack of cohesiveness; that is, different schools have taught different methods, and there has been no generally recognized framework (Sanett, 2013), and (Dubin, et al., 2009). This is changing, however, and the Society of American Archivists (SAA) has created a list of seven core competencies that a digital archivist should have, which includes the ability to communicate the requirements related to digital archives, to formulate the strategies needed to best organize and preserve them, and to "Integrate technologies, tools, software, and media within existing functions for appraising, capturing, preserving, and providing access to digital collections" (Society of American Archivists, 2013, para. IV).

Authenticity and Reliability of Material

As noted, when artifacts undergo a digital preservation process, there is the risk that the preserved item will eventually not even resemble the original. It has been noted that when proper procedures are carried out, digitization can be 99.65% accurate (Bee, 2008). While this figure is high, it still leaves room for error. Over time, as records are continually reprocessed, inaccuracies will compound on top of each other. Additionally, external and internal attacks on items, such as those by hackers, upset employees, or others committing acts of fraud or revenge, as well as economic failures such as a lack of funding or mission change, can all have a negative impact on materials (Gladney, 2009). Digital files are much more

difficult to classify as authentic, as it is very simple to manipulate a digital file and any changes are not always easily apparent (Smith, 2007). There is a similar issue with large-scale digitization projects, particularly when moving items from one repository to another. Information can be easily corrupted or lost (Dubin, Futrelle, Plutchak & Eke, 2009). During the course of a large project, many errors or losses can occur, but it is often too expensive and time consuming to check every part of every record. Staff members need to ensure they are taking all necessary measures to preserve the integrity of the records they are working with.

Standardization

Another major issue with digital preservation education is that the metadata used in digitization is often not standardized, and different variations of the same word or description can cause errors. This is not as critical when it is humans doing the preservation, but as processes become more automated, complications will arise. Because algorithms and software programs can only rely on the information inputted into them by humans, metadata must be standardized so that nothing is lost or left to chance (Dubin, et al., 2009). Although there is no universally agreed-upon set of standards, some are becoming more standard in the industry, particularly in North America. Two of the most prominent are Preservation Metadata: Implementation Strategies (PREMIS) and Metadata Encoding Transmission Standard (METS) (Sanett, 2013). Each has recommendations on metadata standards and guidelines for use.

Although metadata schema, best practices, and professional education have been varied, this is changing, and the Library of Congress's Digital Preservation Outreach and Education Program, which aims to build collaboration between LIS schools and professionals, is one example of the way in which the profession is recognizing that training must be more widely available and more cohesive (Sanett, 2013).

There are many types of standardized repository frameworks around the world, such as the North American Open Archival Information System (OAIS), and the European Repository Toolkit (Galloway, 2009). Repositories using the OAIS framework should ensure files are preserved with needs of both the preservationist and the end user in mind. There are a number of rules and suggestions for archives following this format, including the need to determine the scope of the archive's user community, ensure that the preserved information is independently understandable to the users, and make the preserved information available to the users (Galloway, 2009). The Repository Toolkit allows institutions to integrate digital preservation tools into already existing repository software.

Copyright and Cost Issues

In keeping with other library and information issues, copyright is always a concern. There are many uncertainties in the copyright laws both nationally and internationally, and it is a very grey area. There are complicated questions when examining the copyright of digitized items. Is the material that has been digitized considered published or unpublished? Does the original creator own the rights, or the preservationist? These questions are difficult to answer (Kastellec, 2012). Time can be a factor with copyright issues, especially for special collections or rare items. Trying to find a rights-holder can be time consuming and expensive, and is often an unsuccessful exercise, particularly when working with older materials (Gracy & Kahn, 2012). One implication of personal records being digitized or created as born digital files is that they are then stored in repositories or cloud storage, and therefore beyond the control of the creator. Ingestors of material can ask a server to remove personal records, but there is no guarantee they will do so. Conversely, a record could be deleted at any time; again, without the consent of the ingestor. Ensuring access to records while maintaining privacy is a problem that requires further study (Reyes, 2013).

Finally, as with many issues surrounding libraries and archives, cost is a key issue. Libraries, archives and storage repositories generally do not pay for themselves or have any immediate financial benefit to a parent institution, so funding is always a topic of concern (Brand, 1999). Because digital preservation is a relatively new area, it is difficult to gauge what the cost to departments and institutions will be when using this method of preservation. There are a large number of costs to factor in, such as the cost of program and project management, skills training for staff, and the new software needed to implement the retention of digital assets (Sanett, 2013). The amount of information available that could be preserved is much more than professionals can realistically save, and cost is always a limitation. This financial reality underwrites all other factors when it comes to challenges. No matter what professionals may want to do, or what the user needs are, money is at the root of all decisions (Kastellec, 2012).

The problems associated with digital preservation are often too great for one organization alone to handle, and the cost can be prohibitive. Fortunately, libraries and archives do not have to shoulder this burden alone; organizations can collaborate in order to manage their collections together (Zorich, 2007). Sharing off-site storage via a consortium is one way to lower the cost of keeping hard copies. In this way, if a library or archive cannot afford to store important artifacts correctly, they can send them to an archive or central repository that can. By having the original materials in offsite storage, each member of the consortium can access the digital copy and share resources (Gracy & Kahn, 2012).

An increasingly common repository framework is the Lots of Copies Keep Stuff Safe (LOCKSS) system, which allows a group of consortia members to have a group of interconnected LOCKSS boxes, which continually monitor each file in each box, ensuring nothing has changed with any of them (Gracy & Kahn, 2012). Because authenticity and reliability are always important considerations when archiving and preserving any material, at least one copy of every file or piece of information should be stored in a safe location where it is never accessed or attached to any other computer network. This is known as a dark archive, and should be a collection of materials that do not need to be ever be changed or manipulated (Gladney, 2009). There should be more than one of these "master copies" to ensure validity if needed. Security is an important consideration for these repositories, both to guard the collections against malicious damage, loss, forgery, and theft, and to ensure files are presented according to users' needs (Gracy & Kahn, 2012).

As always, cost is a consideration when developing a shared repository framework. Organizations must decide in advance what the outline for cost distribution will be, and how the program will be managed. Digital storage itself is inexpensive, but managing it properly is not (Stewart, 2012). In addition, it should be remembered that although consortiums are a good way to handle the costs and challenges present, it is important for institutions to develop their own digital preservation policies, in order to be able to move forward in an organized, manner that suits all parties (Sanett, 2013). Consulting with similar institutions or those in the area or with the same or similar mandate would be beneficial.

Awareness

It is imperative that professionals follow best practices in all aspects of digital preservation, including maintaining and preserving the authenticity of the digital objects, making backups, generating appropriate (and standardized) metadata, and continuing to track all surrogates.

Naturally, the above considerations are only viable if professional staff and funders are aware of the problem. It is vital that librarians and archivists make the public aware of the importance of digital preservation. In recent years, government and private bodies have begun to recognize the importance of archiving digital information, and some initiatives are already underway, such as the creation of the National Digital Information Infrastructure and Preservation Program (NDIIPP). This $99 million program, created by the United States federal government in recognition of the importance and prevalence of digital archiving, has the responsibility of creating a national program that focuses on digital preservation of information (Teper, 2005).

Because there is such a large wealth of information that is now digitized, it is almost impossible for libraries and archives to save it all. Up to 80% of websites are updated and/or gone within one year of creation; this makes it nearly impossible for professionals to keep up (Lasfargues, Martin & Medjkoune, 2012). Instead of trying to save everything, some believe that the focus should be on devising the correct ways of preservation and the tools that should be used, and then teaching them to others. Particularly in regards to personal information and records, the public needs to understand the implications of information loss, and take steps to preserve their own information, thereby contributing to the collective historical record (Reyes, 2013). Corporations, governments, and even private citizens should be in charge of their own records, with input from library and archival professionals (Galloway, 2009).

Conclusion

There are different schools of thought on digitization; some see it as the most important advancement in the topic of preservation, and others feel that while it has a place, it is not the even the best solution to keeping information safe. Despite these different attitudes, digitalization, and the subsequent preservation of the digitized files, is an important topic in the world of libraries, archives, and other information centers. As this is a dynamic topic that changes often according to new information and techniques, it is one that will need to be constantly re-addressed. Librarians and archivists have two jobs when it comes to digital preservation; they have to keep up with existing practices, while still finding ways of making digitization happen. As well as this, it is important to focus on the future, anticipating what challenges could arise, and devising solutions. As with all topics surrounding the LIS field, it is important to remember not just the information that needs to be preserved, but also the needs of the information seekers. Librarians, archivists, and other information professionals must continually strive to ensure that users will be able to access the preserved information.

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Privacy, Restriction, and Access: Legal and Ethical Dilemmas

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One of the most crucial and essential elements of archival access practice is the concept of privacy and how that intersects with accessibility. Privacy is the crux of any archive's collection policy, because any archive must take into account the restrictions placed on a collection, either by the creator, the government, or the creator's cultural groups, and how those restrictions may impact collection accession, processing, and accessibility. While many collections do not feature restrictions, collections that do tend to have various reasons for their inclusion, but most of these reasons end up being distilled into one crucial element – privacy. The examination of the literature can be divided into two interrelated but distinct schools of thought. There is an intensely legal argument that discusses the concept of privacy, and a more ethics based argument that discusses the concept of restriction. This literature review goes over the various legal and cultural practices put in place by privacy and examines the intersection of personal privacy and archival access, as it is currently being examined by several academic bodies, which include experts from the archival and information science field as well as the legal field.

The first matter that must be addressed is what is meant by personal privacy. The definition of personal privacy can and does vary based on usage and context. Notably, Valge and Birgit (2007) state that "the concept had not been clearly defined (or cannot be defined) and as a result access varies considerably from state to state" (Valge and Birgit, 2007). Arguably, privacy can change features in a home environment, where work topics may be considered private but religious topics are not, or a work environment, where the opposite is true. In information spaces, which encompass both libraries and archives, privacy continues to change shape, but also from country to country and even within cultural groups. Libraries, for instance, do not consider author and creator privacy when determining collection practices. Rather, library privacy policies are determined with the privacy of the user in mind. Chmara (2009) clearly outlines the responsibility that libraries have in reference to the protection of users. "When patrons use the library, they expect that the library personnel will make every possible effort to protect their privacy", (Chmara, 2009) she clarifies, addressing the fact that without this protection of privacy, "patrons will refrain from selecting certain reading materials, fearing public disclosure" (Chmara, 2009). These policies can and do extend to users of archives and archival materials. However, archives have a further responsibility to not only the users of the material, but the creators of personal, corporate, and government collections to protect their privacy as well. For the purpose of this literature review, unless otherwise specified, the concept of privacy will refer directly to the protection of creators, whether those bodies are individuals, cultural groups, or corporate in nature.

To begin the examination of privacy, it's crucial to look at an overview of the legal definitions. Bryan M. Carson (2007) provides an excellent overview in his book, *The Law of Libraries and Archives*, which details not only the legal context for libraries and archives and the nature of the laws that they are operating under, but also contextualizes these laws in practical, day-to-day settings. This overview is thorough and complete, and covers topics from the application of the First Amendment to copyright and patent law, and the complexities of these laws in archive settings. To understand how the creator is protected by copyright, Carson explains, "intellectual property protection gives creators the exclusive right to the use of products of their imaginations for a limited time period" (Carson, 2007). However, Carson goes on to explain that under the law, libraries and archives have the right to copy materials that are under copyright for particular patron use – that is to say that when material is given to a library or an archive, that some copyright control originally owned by the creator (the exclusive right to the

use of products of their imagination) is transferred to the archive. While several legal rules continue to govern the use of these items, in essence, the archive assumes the right to reproduce any material given to them in good faith (Carson, 2007). Further, archives "are not liable for infringements made by their patrons, as long as the workers don't have knowledge that the items are going to be used in an infringing manner" (Carson, 2007). All this amounts to a picture of how materials given to archives can be used by patrons, which is critical in the understanding of creator privacy.

The legal issues are further examined by Sniffin-Marinoff (2007), who begins to examine the ever-increasing privacy laws, which include Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) and how those privacy laws impact archivists and the increasing need to be aware of restriction and restricted materials, suggests that "it would be useful to learn more about the challenges – and there are many – faced by college and university archivists beyond FERPA" (Sniffin-Marinoff, 2007). However, her outline is lacking in depth and in practical, viable suggestions for solutions to the problems faced by guidelines such as FERPA. Tim Pyatt (2008) expands on this idea, however, insisting that "we must have a growing knowledge of the laws and regulations that govern our records" (Pyatt, 2008). Pyatt outlines the situation with FERPA and HIPAA and the use and protection of personal material in archives that can be used legally (such as Social Security Numbers). Pyatt discusses the institutional fear of litigation, the legal ramifications of the release of information in collections and records kept by archives. While he focuses primarily on institutional archives, his analysis can be applied to state, historical, and any archive that may have public access. The analysis goes further to detail the problems with specific kinds of documents, such as email, oral materials, sensitive research material and even scrapbooks, stating that "student organizations may donate scrapbooks with materials that later generations might consider objectionable" (Pyatt, 2008). Pyatt's discussion of HIPAA is expanded by Wiener and Gilliland (2011), who begin by examining the issues that are present in any archive or institution with a health science history. HIPAA, like FERPA, protects confidential information: in this case, health information. But health science libraries and archives, Wiener and Gilliland point out, often hold material that is needed by researchers, but violates HIPAA regulations. "In the past,," they point out, "archivists and special collections librarians have often used rules of thumb, such as 'grandfather' clauses, for controlling access to sensitive material…these thresholds are no longer adequate" (Wiener and Gilliland, 2011) as HIPAA regulations are changing to be more strict. Policy, then, must also change to keep up with the changing regulations.

Pyatt goes on, however, to discuss and suggest ramifications and possible solutions. He recommends the use of legal advice, clear documentation of archives and their legal responsibilities and privacy rights through the use of forms that are presented both to archivists and creators, and formation of clear access policies. These suggestions are echoed throughout archive management texts; Michael Kurtz (2004) recommends that "access policy…outline(s) who may use archival collections, when such collections are open for research, and how researchers can gain access to closed collections." (Kurtz, 2004). Benedict (1989) recommends that at accessioning, privacy and restriction should be taken into account to determine if collections should be transferred if they have restrictions in place, suggesting that "records that will not be available for research use for a significant period need not be transferred to a repository immediately," (Benedict, 1989) and that these restrictions should be well documented in accession documentation. Wiener and Gilliland suggest that "a more practical approach is to

focus on policies that support the traditional function and goals of collections in medical history" (Wiener and Gilliland, 2011) as closing access while laws are written is impractical and costly for repositories. All of these recommendations are made on the idea that the archive must protect the creators from invasion of privacy, as many collection materials may contain sensitive and private information (some of which the creator may feel comfortable releasing upon his or her death, or upon the death of close relations) but also with the intention of protecting the archive from litigation.

The issue of privacy in archival situations, in this case, has been outlined in these cases as a strictly legal situation. Legally, the archive has a responsibility to both the creator and to the archive itself to protect archival material and archival collections from the potential of lawsuits that hinge on the infringing of privacy by users. In all these scenarios, the user is never at any risk for a lawsuit, because, as clearly stated by Carson, the right (and therefore, the liability) of copying information resides with the archive and not with the user.

However, the idea of legal use of archive material is further complicated in scenarios which involve government accountability. This can include material gathered by government agencies about a third party which the third party may not be willing to share with the general public. Paul Stillitoe (1998) discusses this at length in regards to the legal right to privacy in the United Kingdom, but claims that "to move forward, we must look beyond our own national horizons, and liaise more closely with colleagues facing similar situations thought the world" (Stillitoe, 1998), which suggests that he is more than willing to deal with this situation at an international level. He points out that government recordkeeping and the attitudes that govern the dissemination of information have been changing (something that is reflected in the United States through the use of policy such as HIPAA and FERPA). His paper, however, focuses on the new legislation in the United Kingdom that controls the processing of data that deals with living (or "natural") persons. This legislation is similar enough to FERPA and HIPAA regulations that American archivists can examine his paper with third party information in mind, but can also consider the ethical implications of information sharing that is illegal in countries outside of the United States.

Stillitoe's paper points out that racial information, political opinions, religious or cultural beliefs, union memberships and physical or mental health (including sexual orientation or sexual health) is all considered personal (and therefore private) information in the United Kingdom and can only be divulged with third party permission. This means a complete shift in the thought process of archivists of what is considered sensitive material. Stillitoe recommends that "where no breach of confidence is involved, the standard public records access period, presently 30 years, should be confirmed as the period before which any personal information will normally be made publically available, whether from public or private records" (Stillitoe, 2008). Because this legislation was not created with the intention of archives, Stillitoe argues, it is better to go along with it for now, and accept it as a way to protect the public from itself, and the archive from third party lawsuits due to material in government or corporate body collections that may collect information that is considered sensitive or private.

There is, of course, another body whose legal rights are examined by archivists and theorists, and that body is the governmental body, whose rights are often taken as having higher precedence than the rights of individual citizens. The legal ramifications of privacy when government bodies are taken into account are essential for archivists to examine because government bodies often have some measure of financial or legal control over archival material. Wallace Eberhard (2000) discusses the conflicting nature of access against the concept of

national security, Gregor Trinkaus-Randall (2008) dissects the implications of the Patriot Act in archives, while Abiola Abioye (2010) examines the case of Nigeria and the implications of privacy and official records in the era of Freedom of Information. These papers examine the concept of privacy through a critical lens of government interaction, and suggest that privacy is not simply a legal requirement to protect the creator of archives, but also to protect the users from information, even in the age of freedom of information.

Eberhard begins the conversation with a historical overview of secrets in reference to national security, and how the United States has historically dealt with state secrets, even though the creation of the Freedom of Information Act which "included a specific exemption for national security information, it provided a mechanism for access to non-national security documents" (Eberhard, 2000). He goes further to dissect the nature of access, and how the people of the United States are more aware of accessibility than ever. This is problematic because of the interaction of government access and public access, and their intersections can often cause problems in information environments. He claims that "challenges could be formidable in a future war, and current problems abound in trying to maintain crypto-security for classified information" (Eberhard, 2000). The entire tone of Eberhard's document follows this notion: that the public is in the government's path by demanding some form of access to information.

This attitude is not shared by Trinkaus-Randall, who outlines how difficult finding, accessing, and retaining research information could be for users when faced with formidable opposition such as the Patriot Act. He points out that both privacy and confidentiality are "fundamental to the functioning of libraries and archives" (Trinkaus-Randall, 2008) but that the Patriot Act, as federal law (and thus above state laws that dictate privacy and confidentiality in libraries and archives) require librarians and archivists comply with subpoenas, searches, and requests for confidential information. He points out that the Patriot Act may make the first amendment as information professionals see it, including "the freedom to hear and the freedom to read" (Trinkaus-Randall, 2008) impossible, as the government now is capable of seizing this information for dissemination. This is only furthered by Elizabeth Shepherd's (2007) examination on the UK Freedom of Information (FOI) Act. The FOI was designed with the intention of opening records up for more public scrutiny, particularly governmental and organization records. Shepherd points out that "FOI seemed to have brought about improvements in both senior management awareness and in the provision of resources to implement records management programmes" (Shepherd, 2007) but that these improvements were mostly only seen in non-digital materials, and that digital records still presented a challenge to record keepers. Despite this, Shepherd's research concludes that FOI and the resulting freedom of access to government require more research to truly examine if "FOI has brought greater accountability and discover any specific positive benefits for users." (Shepherd, 2007). While FOI has not been implemented for long enough to distinguish any positive effects, it is a good contrast to the Patriot Act, where one seeks to retain privacy and the other seeks to relinquish it.

One may wonder how Nigeria, and the case that Abiola Abioye refers to, would be involved in this. Nigeria's laws, according to Abioye, seem to favor state secrets. Their recent democracy and previous dictatorships, "not satisfied with the restrictive provisions of the Official Secrets Act, Criminal Code Act and Public Services Rules [all codes, laws, and restrictions designed to prevent the dissemination of information and to restrict public access to records] the various military regimes also engaged various other decrees with sought to restrict access to and purveyance of information about government" (Abioye, 2010). Abioye suggests that it is the youth of Nigeria's democracy that makes the dissemination of information so

difficult, which is even more interesting in relation to the United States when Abioye persists to remark that "one should expect that the dominant culture and belief systems in respect of public records and information both within government and society would be those that support restriction of access to such records and information" (Abioye, 2010). This basically states that the concept of access, particularly in relation to government records, or in relation to what the government classifies as *private,* is slowly absorbed into a cultural ideal. Nigeria's restriction of access has led to a culture that views lack of accessibility as the norm. Viewed from a Western perspective, and reflected against Eberhard's notions of privacy and public access as complicating government access, it is easy to see where the American public culture can transform into one of secrecy. The conversation with writers such as Trinkaus-Randall, who implores that libraries and archives develop strong policies to protect users and examine records for their necessity are crucial to promote the continual access even against a strong governmental policy of privacy for government records.

However, there is another side of restriction to archival accessibility: one that relies less on legal ramifications and more on ethical consideration of complicated issues. Often the lines between legalities and ethics are blurred, particularly where access is concerned, as copyright can be seen as an ethical issue as well as a legal one, particularly where the continual copying of materials is concerned, but ethical issues often have less emphasis on the case of law and a heavier emphasis on the people who are affected by open access to privileged material. This is often where the concept of privacy extends into the area of restriction. For the sake of this review, the definition of restriction differs from privacy in that where privacy is about the rights belonging to the creator of collections, restriction discusses the rights available to users.

In order to fully examine restriction and user rights, and where that intersects with privacy, the concept of archival ethics has to be examined and detailed in great length. The topic of archival ethics could be a paper on its own, but the intersection is a critical point for any discussion on the ethics of restriction. Karen Benedict begins this conversation by defining ethics and their relationship to archives, including a brief history of the archivist code of ethics, and an examination of the current code of ethics. She states that this code "enumerates major areas of archival responsibility, defining the accepted practices or behavior in each of them" (Benedict, 1989). She touches on privacy as "where profit from information gained or the revelation of information from restricted holdings is prohibited" (Benedict, 1989), which infers that ethically, archivists are obligated to not derive profit from restricted materials such as "case files from mental hospitals, orphanages, and other such institutions" (Benedict, 1989). Paul Gates Jr. (2000) both broadens and specifies this, claiming that any control that is not exerted by the creator of the material can be considered "intrusion" or "the intentional invasion of the solitude or seclusion of another in his or her private affairs or concerns through either physical or electronic means" (Gates, 2000) and that ethically, archivists and record keepers are ethically responsible from keeping intrusion to a minimum by users that seek profit – Gates specifies media intrusion, in his case studies, but this could be extended into any intrusion for which the ultimate goal is to gain profit from private information. Both of these papers seem to imply that if private papers are in fact accessed, it can be accessed with a guarantee that the use is private, and not public (that is to say that the user would only access these files with a specific goal of discovering a private detail that they would then not use for profit, whether that profit is monetary or academic in nature).

This conversation then expands into two distinct ethical questions. The first is the question of the ethics of restriction and access of oral materials. The creation of oral materials, or recorded material, is a relatively recent development in the history of archiving, and many of the

ethical dilemmas that surround the creation, preservation, and access of oral materials are still in question. Bruce Breummer (1991) begins this conversation with an overview of the access issues that affect oral materials, which range from neglect to poor cataloguing methods. While he only very briefly touches on restricting material – mainly to suggest that restricted materials should be opened as quickly as possible, to enhance user access, he also makes the suggestion to "support the goal of adequate access to oral history collections by the oral history community" (Breummer, 1991) with the implication that this goal eliminate the pitfalls of restriction. Shirley Stephenson (1987) argues, however, that it is vital to protect oral history collections for legal and ethical reasons with strong policy and stronger contract drafting. While the legal ramifications are ceaseless and complicated, including joint copyright by both the interviewee and the interviewer, copyright law that has not completely caught up with technology, and other legal loopholes, the ethical ones are equally entrenching (Stephenson, 1987). Stephenson points out that "many interviews…have been known to elicit extremely personal information or highly derogatory remarks that students working on the project have shared" and that "students, transcribers, editors, and proofreaders alike should be cautioned that recorded information should always be respected and treated in a professional and confidential manner" (Stephenson, 1987). In essence, oral materials possess a higher risk of intrusion because these materials, unlike paper materials, are not so easily edited.

This issue is even more complex with the digital age and the possibility of internet access is introduced. Alex Byrne (2003) discusses the digital library as a "new digital paradigm" (Byrne, 2003) and discusses the possibility of access to digital materials, both digitized and digital born. Ideally, he states, that "access is available globally 24 hours a day without geographical limitation" and that of the restrictions imposed, most restrictions are linguistic and not privacy-oriented. However, he does examine the problem of the paywall and the rising cost of scholarly information. Digital content can be expensive to host and manage, and therefore restriction may be more due to lack of funds than due to a desire for privacy. This is relevant against the arguments made by Dejah T. Rubel (2007). Rubel outlines the copyright law regarding oral histories and presents it with the distinct situation of digitized, internet-accessible oral history as a focaliser. Oral histories are readily suited for the internet, Rubel argues, as sound exists mainly on digital platforms in modern oral histories and is easily transferred as files between repositories. However, Rubel also points out that "by not being physically present when the collection is accessed, regardless of the format, the archivist relinquishes both the ability to show the materials in context and ensure that professional standards are applied for their use" (Rubel, 2007) and that ethically this presents a problem in the use of materials, as any restrictions of use may not transfer over in a digital format, and permissions can be bypassed through use of software manipulation and technology. This is not simply a legal issue, but an ethical one, because it does not allow for archivists to gauge and supervise the use of oral histories and archival material, in the case that restricted material could be used for profit or intrusion.

In a related issue, tremendous ethical consideration that has become more apparent and more pressing, especially with the subject of audio and visual materials, is the ethical consideration of the collecting, storing, and use of cultural materials. While this subject has a number of iterations, such as the theft of materials from colonized (and now independent) nations, or the theft of artifacts from developing independent nations, the most pressing matter in the topic of ethical restriction of materials comes from the use of indigenous cultural artifacts and knowledge in repositories, not just in the United States, but around the world. Jane Anderson (n.d) presents an Australian perspective, but also opens a conversation regarding the use of

indigenous knowledge and intellectual property that can be applied to many different situations. Anderson begins by pointing out the difficulties in keeping indigenous materials, including that institutions often control access because "they are, in most cases, the copyright owners," (Anderson) which means that members of the indigenous group, even relatives, have little say in access, for or against. Anderson goes on to discuss how indigenous groups are challenging this, as institutions should not own copyright to material that belongs in private space. Indigenous communities are solving the problem of access with their own institutions, ones that "develop quite a specific community intellectual property protocol…[that] would not emanate from larger organisations" (Anderson) which allows intellectual property that is presented to indigenous institutions to follow indigenous cultural practices with the dissemination of knowledge, and preventing unwanted intrusion. These policies "raise(s) the bar in relation to how institutions do deal with Indigenous Knowledge Centres" (Anderson) because it empowers the community to make decisions on their intellectual and cultural property without needing to refer to colonizers for guides to how to best restrict material.

Roy and Alonzo (2003) bring the conversation over to the United States by introducing and discussing the concept of a *tribal archive*, which, like tribal libraries, are designed to document and hold tribal perspectives. They begin with an analysis of how tribal archives function, how they are governed by a tribal council and their relationship to laws such as NAPGRA, which, "in order to repatriate objects, tribes must have documentary proof of what is theirs" (Roy and Alonzo, 2003) and how they can serve the community with historical proof of "land and water rights, disputes in the local industry or economy" (Roy and Alonzo, 2003). They address several concerns, focus on examination of privacy and restriction of access and the act of digitization. "Technological applications in handling cultural materials causes additional hesitancy when non-Native staff are involved in handling cultural material and in displaying them both to the community and beyond" (Roy and Alonzo, 2003) they write, prompting a swift conversation on the importance of training Native archivists to handle cultural material which may be restricted for cultural reasons. They go on to discuss the reasons that tribal archives may be restricted, such as to prevent looting, or because some material can only be viewed by a particular cultural group within the indigenous community itself, such as men or elders. These issues can be exacerbated by digitization, where control can quickly be lost because of the ease of digital access on the internet. Despite the benefits, such as allowing a larger breadth of the community to identify images, places, or cultural materials, and allowing the community to assist in cataloging, Roy and Alonzo wonder how much intrusion will occur in a digital space. However, they maintain that "tribal archivists will need to determine who will sanction work with cultural materials" (Roy and Alonzo, 2003) and that in the end, it will be a case-by-case scenario, with the conversation belonging to archivists in the community and tribal elders, prominently leaving out larger institutions, as is noted by Anderson. The consensus seems to be that restriction must be decided by communities to protect themselves, not by larger institutions.

The general examination of privacy and restriction, then, shows a number of different issues that archives must contend with in order to be conversant in how to best protect creator privacy and restrict user access. Copyright, sensitive material, government agencies and cultural competency must all be taken into account when creating accessible collections, and in deciding when to restrict material. These considerations must be both legal and ethical in nature, but I would argue must also take the user into account. While the desire to make everything accessible is strong, it is simply not feasible when laws and ethics are both taken into account, but the repository's need to serve the public must also be examined. However, there are solutions:

stronger policies that clearly outline copyright and which material must be restricted, strong accession policies that determine if restricted material will even be accepted by repositories, and, in the case of sensitive cultural material, strong community input as to the state of archival material. What remains are studies that show the impact of community involvement in quantitative ways, instead of simply as a report that it is happening. As this material becomes more and more digitized, this foundation must be in place to protect against intrusion and against the release of private or restricted information.

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